

media are becoming a commercialized mass cultural infrastructure aimed at serving the interests of the producers and depersonalization of consumers. And this meets the interest of the supporters of mass culture because moral and ideological results of mass application of standardized informants, which form stereotype manners, norms of conduct and values, automatically bring in financial dividends. Direct relationship of mass culture with information capital, which is strengthening its position in the establishment and enjoys close ties with the international communication market, is becoming the reality of our time. This, certainly, attracts attention.

The achievements of information technologies and mass media systems based on them are so great that the emergence of "information fetishism" is understandable. Representatives of "information fetishism" do not confine to the role of information only to settlement of economic, technological, environmental problems, and apply it to solution of long-standing political, moral and cultural problems. It should be emphasized that not only economic and industrial production, but also political area experiences important influence of information revolution. In addition, politics is increasingly becoming the customer of information technologies.

Rapid development of advanced information and communication technologies both brings about technological innovations, transformation to science-based production, and radically changes people's entire information environment, the whole socio-cultural content of social life, and increases the role of information area. The new information space dictates new realities of the world information market, which has almost become the most rapidly developing sector, eliminating any borders or ideological barriers, and regulating national and cultural differences. New technologies increase the opportunities of delivering any kind of information to any human being in any part of the globe. This also defines the political aspect of information

revolution, which is of particular importance when public structures undergo reforms. The reason is that information is becoming one of the most significant factors in terms of stabilization or destabilization of the society and its political institutions. Moreover, the more tense and dynamic situation in any part of the world is, the more important role the mass media play.

The high level of technologies and global nature of modern information environment, various ways of transmitting information – post, telegraph, telephone, computer and telecommunication technologies prompt the formation of individual communications market (based on network, satellite and stationary communications systems). Now hybrids of telephones, computer, fax and pocket devices are emerging. The intensity of technical progress in this area gives grounds to suggest its unpredictability.

Television, which ignores state borders and national differences of the auditorium as a result of the strengthening of the global influence opportunities of information, experiences the most serious changes. It is more clearly visible in the Internet system. Unlike trade operations, the flow of information is not registered when crossing state borders.

The establishment of a single global information space is an objective requirement of information industry at the modern stage. However, it is not taking place in a balanced manner. The political, economic importance of this process proves that there is discrimination against informationally and technologically less powerful countries. Azerbaijan is an exception. On the night of February 8, 2013 Azerbaijan put its first satellite "Azerspace-1" into orbit. Some 20 percent of the satellite's resources will be used for Azerbaijan's needs, and 80 percent will be available for commercial purposes. It ensures quality television and radio broadcast and high-speed Internet services in the entire territory of Azerbaijan, including Nakhchivan.

Digital computer network replaces previous network of information transmission (telegraph, post, broadcast, cable, etc.). The size of information transmitted through digital computer network cannot be compared to the size of information transmitted by traditional media – television, radio and printed press. Books, newspapers and magazines are available both in printed and online formats.

It should also be noted that the development and integration of information structures has recently started to gain direct support from separate politicians and relevant government institutions. In Japan, for example, the development of cable television network is directly supported by the Ministry of Communications. The government of the United States of America and United Kingdom have considerably reduced anti-monopoly limitations and are now not only preventing, but even assisting the consolidation of local information business (including the integration of printed and electronic media). Even some leaders of developed countries take patronage of important integration projects. For example, let's take a widely known fact: former U.S. Vice-President Albert Gore was

patronizing the information superhighway project of the integration of digital communication systems and the Internet telecommunications network. Taking into account pro-Western development of the local media in the last decade, obviously the same fate awaits the information market of developing countries too. And appropriate bodies are already engaged in forecasting the results of such developments.

These changes bring about the emergence of trends of global change of socio-psychological and even mental comprehension and knowledge mechanisms. This leads to the replacement of the individual analysis through a printed paper with the mass image (television, computer). So a new communicative language based on images, not on symbols (words) is emerging. The results of this transformation can radically change human mentality.

However, these global tendencies experience complete modification in the context of national cultures and change in countries' information space.

References:

1. Абдеев Р.Ф. Философия информационной цивилизации. Москва: Мысль, 1999, стр.336
2. Макеев А.В. Политология. Москва: ЮНИТИ., 2002, стр.334
3. Şirəliyev H.İ., Abbasov F.F. Politologiya. Bakı: Bilik, 1993, səh. 244
4. Тавокин Е.П. Системные основы государственной информационной политики // Массовые информационные процесс в современной России / Отв. ред. А.В. Шевченко. Москва: РАГС, 2002., стр.31-42
5. Tağıyev Ə. və b. Orta əsrlərin fəlsəfi və sosial-siyasi fikri (Qərbi Avropa və Azərbaycan). Bakı: Çəşioğlu, 1999, səh.288
6. Попов В.Д. Информациология и информационная политика. Москва: Изд-во РАГС, 2001, стр.118
7. Попов В. Д. Государственная информационная политика: состояние и проблемы формирования // Массовые процессы в современной России: Очерки / Отв. ред. А.В. Шевченко. Москва: Изд-во РАГС, 2002, стр.301

Academic institutions and community-based organizations

Brandy McMillian

Department of Health Sciences, Faculty
of Behavioural Sciences, Lakehead University, 955

doi: <http://dx.doi.org/98/jpapyr1i1.52>
<http://journaljuristicpsyrology.org/acces-online/>

Abstract

Academic institutions and community-based organisations have increasingly recognised the value of working together to meet their different objectives and address common societal needs. In an effort to support the development and maintenance of these partnerships, a diversity of brokering initiatives has emerged. We broadly describe these initiatives as coordinating mechanisms that act as intermediaries with the aim of developing collaborative and sustainable partnerships that provide mutual benefit. A broker can be an individual or an organisation that helps connect and support relationships and shares knowledge. To date, there has been little scholarly discussion or analysis of the various elements of these initiatives that contribute to successful community-campus partnerships. In an effort to better understand where these features may align or diverge, we reviewed a sample of community-campus brokering initiatives across North America, Canada and the United Kingdom to identify their different roles and activities. From this review, we developed a framework to delineate characteristics of different brokering initiatives to better understand their contribution to successful partnerships. The framework is divided into two parts. The first part examines the different structural allegiances of the brokering initiative by identifying the affiliation and principle purpose, and who received the primary benefits. The second part considers the dimensions of brokering activities in respect of their level of engagement, platforms used, scale of activity, and area of focus. The intention of the community-campus engagement brokering framework is to provide an analytical tool

for academics and community-based practitioners engaged in teaching and research partnerships. The categories describing the different structures and dimensions of the brokering initiative will encourage participants to think through the overall goals and objectives of the partnership and adapt the initiative accordingly.

Keywords: brokering initiatives; community-based research; community-campus engagement; partnerships; service learning

Introduction

Academic institutions and community-based organisations have increasingly recognised the value of working together to meet their different objectives and address common societal needs. Building effective research and teaching collaborations between communities (e.g. organisations in the private, public and non-profit sectors) and academics (e.g. postsecondary students, postdoctoral fellows, instructors, professors and their institutions) have resulted in many fruitful outcomes (Buys & Bursnall 2007; Hart, Maddison & Wolff 2007). Schwartz et al. (2016, p. 178) explain that community-campus partnerships can provide ‘an avenue to address challenges that face society in new and innovative ways by bringing together knowledge, tools, and skills not previously combined’. Examples exist across a range of sectors and issue areas including community food security (Andrée et al. 2014; Andrée et al. 2016), poverty reduction (Calderón 2007; Schwartz et al. 2016), violence against women (Bell et al. 2004; Jaffe, Berman & MacQuarrie 2011), and community environmental sustainability (Baker 2006; Molnar et al. 2010), to name only a few. While a diversity of approaches exists, in ideal conditions of community-campus engagement (CCE), partners share decision-making and equalise power throughout the research process (Lindamer et al. 2009), co-develop mutually beneficial outputs and outcomes (Levkoe et al. 2016; Naqshbandi et al. 2011), build capacity for under-resourced community-based organisations (Baquet 2012; Sandy & Holland 2006), engage new perspectives to increase knowledge (McNall et al. 2009), and sustain an ability to work together beyond the life of a specific project (Naqshbandi et al. 2011).

Despite the many successes, community-based practitioners involved in CCE have

faced a number of challenges. While community groups typically enter into research relationships being promised mutually beneficial outcomes, studies show that academics and their institutions often benefit far more from these kinds of partnerships (Alcantara et al. 2015; Bortolin 2011; Cronley, Madden & Davis 2015). For community partners, barriers to participating in CCE can include limited time and resources to fully engage (Keyte 2014; Lantz et al. 2001), minimal support for building and maintaining partnerships (Dorow, Stack-Cutler & Varnhagen 2011; Petri 2015; Sandy & Holland 2006), power imbalances (Schwartz et al. 2016), lack of trust (Lantz et al. 2001; Petri 2015) and high levels of staff and volunteer turnover (Keyte 2014; Schwartz et al. 2016; Van Devanter et al. 2011). Despite recognition of these challenges, institutional structures are typically designed to support academics (Cronley, Madden & Davis 2015; Dempsey 2010; Ward & Wolf-Wendel 2000). Studies have also identified significant barriers faced by academics when participating in CCE, including having limited time and resources and being discouraged from community-engaged pedagogies through tenure and promotion structures (Levkoe, Brial & Danier 2014). While most responses tend to occur on a case-by-case basis, some have called for more institutionalised and sustained support mechanisms (Chen 2013; Dorow, Stack-Cutler & Varnhagen, 2011).

CCE brokers have emerged as one response to these challenges. In this article, we broadly describe brokering initiatives as coordinating mechanisms that act as intermediaries between community-based organisations and academic institutions with an aim to develop collaborative and sustainable partnerships. A broker is an individual or organisation that helps connect and support relationships and share knowledge. While

many different forms of brokering initiatives have emerged, there has been little synthesis or analysis on the various features of these initiatives that contribute to successful partnerships. Most brokering initiatives share a common goal of fostering relationships between community and campus partners; yet, they tend to be heterogeneous in their motivations, mandates, organisational structures, target groups, activities, and the sectors they serve. Because brokering initiatives differ on so many dimensions, it is necessary to consider their similarities and differences and assess which elements may be valuable for a particular type of CCE.

In this article, we present a framework for comparative analysis that identifies the different features, roles and activities of CCE brokering initiatives. This framework provides an analytical tool for academics and community-based practitioners to reflect on how the different characteristics of brokering initiatives may contribute to successful CCE partnerships. We begin by summarising the relevant literature, describing key features of CCE brokers, their different functions, and the various factors for success and challenges they face.

Describing and differentiating CCE brokering initiatives

Brokering initiatives aim to support participants at different stages of a partnership and vary depending on their structures, targeted populations and specific activities. Experiences of CCE tend to be context-specific and a CCE broker's role is dependent on the specific project and the needs and assets of each partner. Brokering initiatives must also be flexible and open to change depending on the phase of the relationship. Tennyson (2005) identified three key differences, which provide a basis for understanding how brokering initiatives work within one of the partnering organisations and taking responsibility for preparing and conditioning the different actors, representing the organisation for the duration of the partnership, and

managing various aspects of the collaboration. Internal brokers bring together relevant partners but may also share in decision-making throughout a project. These functions can be compared to those of external brokers who may be contracted by the partners to set up agreements, build capacity, and/or maintain and track ongoing effectiveness. External brokers support partners and equip them with tools to ensure the project is moving forward, but tend to take on little, if any, decision-making responsibility. Second, a broker can be an individual or a team working within or outside one of the partner organisations and tasked with building relationships on behalf of the organisation. Third, proactive brokers initiate and build partnerships, while reactive brokers coordinate partnerships or implement decisions on an organisation's behalf. While some CCE brokers play a key role in developing a partnership, others support a partnership after its initiation. The three differences identified by Tennyson demonstrate that brokers can take on many roles, depending on the particular partners' needs.

Besides recognising the many differences, Tennyson and Baksi (2016) point to a series of common roles and activities among brokers. These include supporting partners throughout the phases in the partnership cycle from scoping and building (e.g. providing outreach and opportunities to engage, managing expectations), managing and maintaining (e.g. facilitating dialogue and governance arrangements, problem-solving), reviewing and revising (e.g. establishing and implementing an ongoing evaluation plan, supporting changes to the partnership) to sustaining outcomes (e.g. knowledge mobilisation, celebrating achievements, managing closure/next steps). Given the variation in the needs of partners and partnership phases, brokers are likely to take on many roles within and across projects, developing a suite of skills to support and benefit partnerships. While some brokering initiatives take on a single role

across community-campus partnerships, such as making an initial connection between two partners, others assume a combination of roles, supporting partners throughout the life of a project.

Specific to community-campus projects, CCE brokers act as an intermediary between community-based organisations and academic institutions. They have been shown to support community and academic partners in designing and implementing a project, establishing initial connections, delivering skills training, problem-solving, supervising students' community-engaged research and learning activities, evaluating a project's impact, and using results to improve future programs while contributing to positive changes in communities (Keating & Sjoquist 2000; Phipps, Johnny & Wedlock 2015; Tennyson 2014). CCE brokers have also promoted learnings and insights, and addressed concerns of power and resource imbalance by ensuring community and campus partners share control equitably (Keating & Sjoquist 2000; Phipps, Johnny & Wedlock 2015). In addition, because community organisations and universities face high levels of personnel turnover, CCE brokers can help by sustaining a project over the long term (Keating & Sjoquist 2000). To avoid leaving community-based organisations with unfinished projects, CCE brokers can help overcome constraints of an academic schedule by continuing to complete tasks after the end of a term.

based brokering initiatives typically aim to encourage the university population to engage in CCE through training, partnership matching, funding and ongoing support. These kinds of models may support initiatives such as science shops, service-learning courses, community-based research projects and community outreach services. Many of them also offer support for community-based organisations working with academics by providing a range of services such as facilitating initial connections and partnership development, and offering templates for partnership agreements, financial and human resources and troubleshooting on an ongoing basis. Academic institutions typically house and fund university-based brokers to meet

institutional needs. While community partners play an important role in projects working with academic faculty or students, a key purpose of these brokering initiatives is to ensure academics have opportunities to conduct research and learn within community organisations.

The Community Engaged Scholarship Institute (www.cesinstitute.ca/) is one example of a university-based brokering initiative. It is located in Guelph, Canada, and acts as a hub for engaged scholarship within the University of Guelph and the broader community. Staff members work with faculty members and students, community-based organisations and government, building capacity for participation in community engagement and social innovation projects. The Institute leverages resources, builds and maintains partnerships, and addresses obstacles to participating in community-engaged research. Another example is University-Community Partnerships (<http://ucp.msu.edu/>). Located in East Lansing, US, it provides a range of services for developing research networks among campus partners at Michigan State University and community partners. Staff match university partners interested in working with a community group or partner on a grant proposal or maintaining a long-term campus partnership with a community group. University-Community Partnerships balances university and community needs and priorities, promoting projects that provide mutual benefits for all partners, build capacity in communities and encourage long-term partnerships within research networks.

As a hybrid of the previous two categories, community-university-based brokering initiatives are often managed by a team of academic staff, students and/or faculty, as well as community-based organisational representatives. Initiatives in this category are typically driven by both community and academic partners, although it is common to see explicit reference towards prioritising community objectives and goals. These types of brokering initiatives typically operate using a mix of resources from postsecondary institutions and external grant funding.

An example of a community-university-based brokering initiative is the Helpdesk of

the Community University Partnership Programme (www.brighton.ac.uk/business-services/community-partnerships/index.aspx), housed at the University of Brighton in the UK. The Helpdesk's work is community-driven and collaborative, with an emphasis on ensuring that community and academic partners are able to build equitable relationships and gain mutual benefit (Rodriguez & Millican 2007). It acts as a gateway to the university for both representatives from community-based organisations enquiring about funding for starting up a research project and faculty members who might have relevant research interest in collaborating on a project; and as a contact point for university staff and students interested in making contact with community-based organisations for collaborative research and teaching purposes. Initiated through philanthropic seed funding, the Helpdesk currently receives the majority of its funding through its university host. Another example is the Trent Community Research Centre (www.trentcentre.ca/) located in Peterborough, Canada. The Centre is community-based, with project proposals prioritising community needs coming from community-based organisations. Brokers match Trent University students seeking to engage in community-based projects as volunteers or to fulfil part of their course work with community partners to conduct community-based research projects. They ensure that community partners' priorities drive the project, as well as supporting the university students throughout the project.

Resource-based brokering initiatives include grant programs that provide resources to community-based organisations and academic researchers and/or institutions that aim to address key challenges through research and action. While some resource-based brokering initiatives simply provide monetary resources, others prefer to play a more active role in the partnership by taking on management responsibilities and/or offer-

ing extended support services such as training and knowledge mobilisation services. For example, the Social Science and Humanities Research Council of Canada (http://www.sshrc-crsh.gc.ca/about-au_sujet/partnerships-partenariats/index-eng.aspx) offers a series of grant programs to support partnerships between academics at different universities, as well as between businesses and non-profit organisations. Funds are granted to carry out research, training and knowledge mobilisation activities using approaches that involve partners collaborating and sharing leadership. Funds can be used to establish new partnerships, test partnership approaches and expand established partnerships. As a second example, the National Coordinating Centre for Public Engagement (www.publicengagement.ac.uk/), located in Bristol, UK, supports universities throughout the UK to increase how often and how well they engage in community-based research and learning activities. It works with campus staff members and students to develop skills for community-engagement activities and offers training sessions (e.g. funding, impact, evaluation) and consultancy to researchers, research managers and staff members in community-based organisations.

Finally, brokering networks, the broadest of the brokering initiative categories, describe initiatives that tend to operate independently to foster relationships through a series of mechanisms. With brokering networks taking on a range of formal and informal structures, they often require little commitment from members and minimal resources to sustain. Networks can also work across geographies to provide a channel for sharing information, resources and ideas (Ontario Health Communities Coalition n.d.). Brokering networks offer opportunities to develop partnerships, collaborate on projects and share information in a more indirect way than the other four structures.

The Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (www.ccphealth.org/) is a membership-based CCE network that provides numerous opportunities to promote and connect communities and academic institutions around health equity and social justice (Community-Campus Partnerships for Health 2017). Through their website, multiple listservs and biennial conference, the network mobilises knowledge, provides training and technical assistance, conducts research, builds coalitions and advocates for supportive policies. As a brokering network, it unites community practitioners and academics from diverse fields around community-based participatory research principles and practices. On the other hand, the Canadian Rural Research Network (<http://rural-research-network.blogspot.ca/>) acts as a hub for rural stakeholders across Canada, including academics, practitioners, formal and informal community groups, and government officials, to share research outputs. Members can stay up-to-date on rural research, connect with various rural stakeholders, and develop and maintain research partnerships. The Network has no budget, but is sustained by its members who serve on various committees.

Part 2: Dimensions

The second part of the framework involves four categories that speak to the kinds of activities undertaken by brokering initiatives. These categories address details of what CCE brokers do and how they develop programs, governance and infrastructure accordingly. Below we present a description of each of the four categories as well as examples of some of the different kinds of brokering initiatives.

First, level of engagement covers the frequency of support and duration of involvement that brokers have with stakeholders throughout a CCE project. The level of engagement of the different brokering initiatives can be conceived of as a continuum that meets the needs of CCE partnerships in a variety of ways. At one end are brokering initiatives that provide 'light-touch' engagement, which often involves CCE brokers having initial contact with partners, being less involved after the partnership has been established, and allowing the partners to take on leader-

ship. For example, some brokering initiatives we reviewed supported community-engaged learning projects by pairing students with community-based organisations to fulfil coursework requirements, identifying faculty members to work with a particular community partner, and offering training sessions, one-time learning events, or meeting spaces to be used on an as needed basis. At the other end are brokering initiatives that offer a deep level of engagement. This involves establishing partnerships and playing an active role throughout the duration of the project by working with partners to manage and conduct community-driven research. The Trent Community Research Centre, for example, maintains contact with partners throughout the course of a project and sometimes beyond. These CCE brokers also engage in project-planning and decision-making, helping to secure project funding, and in the case of community-based research activities, playing a direct role in the research (e.g. data collection, analysis and interpretation, and knowledge mobilisation).

Second, brokering initiatives differed in respect of the types of platforms they used to manage services. Some brokering initiatives maintained a physical centre within an academic institution or an office in the community. Having a physical presence within a community or on campus allowed these types of brokering initiatives to host face-to-face meetings with community and university partners or make workspaces available for planning, data collection or informal discussions. Learning events, such as workshop series, presentation panels and informal meet-and-greets could also be used to bring community and academic partners together for face-to-face interaction. Other brokering initiatives, such as the Canadian Rural Research Network, used virtual platforms that offered community and academic partners the opportunity to connect through online communication tools, such as discussion forums, listservs, researcher wanted boards, expertise or member profile searches, volunteer or partner matching databases, and virtual platforms for group collaboration. Some brokering initiatives offered a combination of physi-

cal and virtual platforms as multiple ways to connect diverse partners.

Third, brokering initiatives differed in their scale of activities. Some brokering initiatives were primarily focused on supporting partnerships in their local community or region. Examples include brokering partnerships between community groups and students to establish a food rescue program in a city, establishing connections with local housing providers and professors to develop innovative opportunities in a low-income neighbourhood, and working with local libraries to match university students with children in need of reading mentors. Other brokering initiatives reached a national audience. For example, establishing partnerships between rural researchers and practitioners across Canada, connecting diverse stakeholders to explore national poverty solutions, and bringing together community-based organisations and academics in the UK over issues of food security. Other brokering initiatives spanned a much wider geography, working with partners on an international scale. Examples include promoting an exchange of ideas and knowledge-sharing at international health and social justice conferences on community-based participatory research, implementing an international in-person community-campus partnerships course and follow-up mentoring, and promoting online global dialogue and resource-sharing for students and community activists interested in social action and research.

Lastly, the areas of focus varied among the different brokering initiatives. Some initiatives engaged in particular issue-based activities and services. For example, a brokering initiative focusing on community food security hosted webinars and workshops, posted articles on their website and sent out newsletters to members. Other issue-based efforts covered poverty reduction, rural research, HIV/AIDS, and housing. In general, these activities tended to be more issue-based than those in the other brokering initiative categories.

Some brokering initiatives had a much broader focus, however, with CCE brokers engaging in projects using community-engaged approaches to teaching and research, focusing on a broad range of issues and areas, such as community resilience and health promotion.

Upon examination of the four categories, level of broker engagement and types of broker platforms, appeared to be the most informative for developing a brokering initiatives matrix. Areas of focus tended to vary among the brokering initiatives and few patterns could be identified from that dimension. And while we noticed that brokering initiatives using virtual platforms tended to reach more national and international audiences, whereas physical platforms lent themselves to a local scale of activity, descriptions of activities within the level of broker engagement and type of broker platforms seemed most informative for guiding brokering initiatives. Figure 1 provides a summary of these two brokering initiative dimensions.

Figure 1 Broker initiative dimensions matrix

Brokering initiatives in the virtual-light touch quadrant offer opportunities to share knowledge and establish connections with a wide span of members or partners. The Canadian Rural Research Network (<http://rural-research-network.blogspot.ca/>) is one example of this type of approach. Some drawbacks to this approach include members engaging in passive interactions (e.g. scanning a blogpost), but not reaching out to members, and offering limited member contact by not promoting regular member or partner contact. Brokering initiatives in the virtual-deep engagement quadrant offer members more engaging opportunities to connect by promoting ongoing project sharing, regular meetings and frequent news updates. While this approach has great potential in deeply connecting diverse stakeholders, we did not come across this kind of brokering initiative in our search. Drawbacks to this ap-

proach could be the increased resources required within the brokering initiative to moderate discussions, host meetings, and provide regular coaching and member interaction. Brokering initiatives in the physical-light touch quadrant offer services to connect people within communities while requiring fewer resources to sustain a deep engagement initiative. The Helpdesk is an example of a brokering initiative that uses this approach. A drawback could be that partners might not be able to sustain engagement without a broker's ongoing support. Finally, the physical-deep engagement brokering initiative offers partners opportunities to deeply engage with one another throughout the life of a project. The Centre for Community-Based Research is an example of this type of brokering initiative. Drawbacks include the resources, such as time, space and funds, necessary to support partners at each phase of a project.

Conclusions

In this article, we have presented an overview of the features, roles and activities of brokering initiatives and a framework to better understand their contributions to successful community-campus partnerships. Our intention has been to provide an analytical tool that can support academics and community-based practitioners engaged in teaching and research partnerships. There are a number of ways this framework might be used in developing new or existing brokering initiatives. First, the categories in each of the two parts of the framework describing the different structural allegiances (i.e. community-based brokering initiatives, university-based brokering initiatives, community-university-based brokering initiatives, resource-based brokering initiatives and brokering networks) and dimensions (i.e. levels of engagement, types of platforms, scales of activities and areas of focus) could encourage partners to think through their overall goals and objectives. The framework could also help participants to better evaluate the purpose of a brokering initiative and the various mechanisms to be used to meet those objectives. Further, it might enable consideration of the strengths and limitations of various brokering initiatives in order to understand what each might

accomplish, its limitations, and how it could adapt accordingly.

For example, a CCE broker interested in disseminating knowledge, keeping participants up-to-date on activities and providing a place for input and sharing ideas might adopt a virtual light-touch engagement model. This type of model would require few resources to maintain (e.g. staff members, infrastructure, costs). A brokering initiative interested in regularly engaging a wide reach of partners or members, but at a low cost, might wish to use a virtual deep-engagement model. This could keep overheads low as only a few key staff members would be required to maintain online communication tools and activities (e.g. website, discussion moderation, web coaching, webinars). By contrast, a brokering initiative seeking to have a wide community impact by reaching many diverse partners might decide to use a physical light-touch model. By offering matching services, but not requiring resources to provide ongoing support to partnerships throughout a project, this type of initiative would require minimal staff members to review proposals and match partners. The most resource-intensive choice is the physical deep-engagement model. A brokering initiative with the goal of establishing and maintaining CCE partnerships and supporting partners long-term would need to ensure they had adequate, ongoing funding available to sustain such a model. As more CCE projects turn to brokering initiatives as a way to support their work, it is important that all partners have a clear sense of the initiative's purpose and what is involved.

The framework could also be used to consider where and how to situate a brokering initiative. For example, a brokering initiative based in the community would be more accessible for community-based organisations and more understanding and responsive to their needs than if based in a university. This would be especially true if there was concern that a particular institutional structure might not address the needs of community participants in a meaningful way. However, university-based brokers might have more success securing funding and other resources to support their work. Universities could also facilitate broader based partner-

ship networks, while many non-profit organisations would have limited capacity to build and maintain relationships beyond those related to their immediate work. With university funding, however, comes additional expectations (e.g. prioritising faculty and students, adhering to a university's strategic plan). As another example, as brokering initiatives in a physical location are typically housed in community-based centres or university-based offices, they are well positioned to respond to their immediate community, an important element in building trust. Network brokers, on the other hand, tend to use virtual platforms, which limit face-to-face contact but allow them to reach a much wider constituency.

Brokering initiatives could also use this framework when mapping out the resources needed to sustain their work. Common to most brokering initiatives we examined was the importance of having a steady source of funding to develop infrastructure, hire staff to carry out the necessary tasks and sustain the initiative over the long-term. CCE brokers that are funded or based in a university tended to have the most stability and capacity as a result of solid institutional backing. In fact, some of the brokering initiatives we studied began as independent organisations based in the community, but over time chose to relocate to the university due to funding opportunities and the institutional resources and supports available. Having stable funding appeared to lessen the anxiety of participants and allow CCE brokers to focus on improving the content of their activities and services. In a number of cases, added stability also enabled participants to more seriously consider and address power imbalances within their relationships. Some of the networks we examined, such as the Canadian Rural Research Network, did not have funding and, as a result, operated primarily as a shell, with activities driven completely by participants (typically those with grants to do their work). The source of funding also made a significant dif-

ference to the work CCE brokers could take on. For example, one brokering initiative reported that having support from an external funder over the course of several years allowed them to respond better to community needs, take risks and experiment with new types of activities rather than worrying about whether they were addressing the university's strategic plan. For many academics, a well-funded, secure and long-term partnership provided added legitimacy for engaging in, and in some cases leading, CCE projects.

We propose several directions for future research on CCE brokering initiatives. First, there is very little research documenting and evaluating case studies of brokering initiatives, especially in peer-reviewed journals. These kinds of scholarly studies are important as a means of sharing information and comparing and contrasting the efforts of different initiatives. The framework is a first step towards that in-depth analysis and could be used to further examine the process of building and maintaining CCE brokering relationships and models. Second, limited research exists on both the factors for success and the challenges faced by CCE brokering initiatives. To share learnings, we suggest that researchers analyse experiences and document lessons learned from attempts at brokering community-campus partnerships in relation to the categories proposed in this article. Finally, CCE practitioners would benefit from studies of the different tools available to support brokering initiatives. We propose that these tools could be conceptualised in relation to the framework.

While this framework provides a valuable tool for understanding and evaluating brokering initiatives, it is not intended to be static. In most cases, we found that the categories were not fixed and that many of the brokering initiatives we examined took on more than one of the structural allegiances and/or dimensions simultaneously. This speaks to the context in which many of these brokering initiatives operate (e.g. react-

ing/responding to changing funding realities, program priorities of community organisations, emerging/unanticipated needs, etc.). Also, as technology changes along with the needs of CCE, new tools are being developed that may require different kinds of frameworks to understand and interpret CCE activities. Thus, while we compared brokering initiatives in order to understand their different attributes, we are not advocating a standardised approach to evaluation. Our research and experience leads us to suggest that brokering initiatives must be context-specific and respond to the needs of both community and academic partners. However, we need mech-

anisms to support community-campus partnerships in a more institutional and sustained way. It is our hope that the analytical framework will make a meaningful contribution to this endeavour.

Acknowledgements

We gratefully acknowledge the assistance and support of the academics and practitioners involved in the Community First: Impacts of Community Engagement (CFICE) project. Specifically, we wish to acknowledge contributions made by Peter Andrée, Jason Garlough, Stephen Hill, John Marris, Natasha Pei, Amanda Sheedy, Elizabeth Whitmore and Amanda Wilson.

References

1. Alcantara, L, Harper, G, Keys, C & The Adolescent Medicine Trials Network for HIV/AIDS Interventions 2015, "There's gotta be some give and take": Community partner perspectives on benefits and contributions associated with community partnerships for youth', *Youth & Society*, vol. 47, no. 4: pp. 462–85. doi:10.1177/0044118X12468141
2. Andrée, P, Chapman, D, Hawkins, L, Kneen, C, Martin, W, Muehlberger, C, Nelson, C, Pigott, K, Qaderi-Attayi, W, Scott, S & Stroink, M 2014, 'Building effective relationships for community-engaged scholarship in Canadian food studies', *Canadian Food Studies/La Revue canadienne des études sur l'alimentation*, vol. 1, no. 1: pp. 27–53. doi:10.15353/cfs-rcsa.v1i1.19
3. Andrée, P, Kepkiewicz, L, Levkoe, C, Brynne, A & Kneen, C 2016, 'Learning, food and sustainability in community-campus engagement: Teaching and research partnerships that strengthen the food sovereignty movement', in J Sumner (ed.), *Learning, food and sustainability: Sites for resistance and change*, Palgrave, New York, pp. 133–54.
4. Baker, D 2006, 'Ecological development through service-learning', *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, vol. 11, no. 1: pp. 145–59.
5. Baquet, C 2012, 'A model for bidirectional community-academic engagement (CAE): Overview of partnered research, capacity enhancement, systems transformation, and public trust in research', *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved*, vol. 23, no. 4: pp. 1806–824. doi:10.1353/hpu.2012.0155
6. Bell, H, Busch, N, Cook Heffron, L, White, B, Angelelli, M & Rivaux, S 2004, 'Balancing power through community building: Researchers, survivors, and practitioners set the research agenda on domestic violence and sexual assault', *Affilia*, vol. 19, pp. 404–17. doi:10.1177/0886109904268871
7. Bortolin, K 2011, 'Serving ourselves: How the discourse on community engagement privileges the university over the community', *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, vol. 18, no. 1: pp. 49–58.
8. Brown, L, Ochocka, J, de Grosbois, S & Hall, B 2015, 'Kamúcwkalha: Canadian approaches to community-university research partnerships', in B Hall, R Tandon & C Tremblay (eds), *Strengthening community university research partnerships: Global perspectives*, University of Victoria, British Columbia, BC, pp. 95–112.
9. Burke, J 2013, 'Making it better: The partnership broker's role in review and evaluation', *Betwixt and Between: The Journal of Partnership Brokering*, vol. 2.
10. Buys, N & Bursnall, S 2007, 'Establishing university-community partnerships: Processes and benefits', *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, vol. 29, no. 1: pp. 73–86. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13600800601175797>

11. Calderón, J 2007, *Race, poverty, and social justice: Multidisciplinary perspectives through service learning*, Stylus Publishing, Sterling, VA.
12. Chen, Y-Y 2013, 'Partnership and performance of community-based organizations: A social network study of Taiwan', *Journal of Social Service Research*, vol. 39, iss. 5, pp. 690–703. doi:10.1080/01488376.2013.829164
13. Community Campus Partnerships for Health 2017, 'About us', viewed 2 February 2017, <https://ccph.memberclicks.net/about-us>
14. Cronley, C, Madden, E & Davis, J 2015, 'Making service-learning partnerships work: Listening and responding to community partners', *Journal of Community Practice*, vol. 23, no. 2: pp. 274–89. doi:10.1080/10705422.2015.1027801
15. Dempsey, S 2010, 'Critiquing community engagement', *Management Communication Quarterly*, vol. 24, no. 3: pp. 359–90. doi:10.1177/0893318909352247
16. Dorow, S, Stack-Cutler, H & Varnhagen, S 2011, *Community perspectives on partnering with the University of Alberta: The 2009 survey of local Edmonton organizations*, University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB.
17. Evans, J & McClinton-Brown, R 2016, *Ensuring shared leadership in research through community advisory boards*, paper presented at the 2016 Community-Campus Partnerships for Health conference, New Orleans, LA, 11 May.
18. Fusch, P & Ness, L 2015, 'Are we there yet? Data saturation and qualitative research', *The Qualitative Report*, vol. 20, no. 9: pp. 1408–16.
19. Hart, A, Maddison, E & Wolff, W 2007 (eds), *Community-university partnerships in practice*, National Institute of Adult Continuing Education, England, UK.
20. Holliday, M, DeFalco, T & Sherman, J 2015, 'Putting impact first: Community-university partnerships to advance authentic neighborhood sustainability', *Metropolitan Universities*, vol. 26, no. 3: pp. 79–104.
21. Hundal, S 2013, 'Evaluating partnership broker approach: A methodological perspective', *Between and Between: The Journal of Partnership Brokering*, vol. 2.
22. Ivery, J 2010, 'Partnerships in transition: Managing organizational and collaborative change', *Between and Between: The Journal of Partnership Brokering*, vol. 20, no. 1: pp. 20–37. doi:10.1080/10911350903256648
23. Jaffe, P, Berman, H & MacQuarrie, B 2011, 'A Canadian model for building university and community partnerships: Centre for Research & Education on Violence Against Women and Children', *Violence Against Women*, vol. 17, no. 9: pp. 1159–75. doi:10.1177/1077801211419097
24. Keating, L & Sjoquist, D 2000, 'The use of an external organization to facilitate university-community partnerships', *Cityscape: A Journal of Policy Development and Research*, vol. 5, pp. 141–57.
25. Keyte, L 2014, *Barriers and opportunities for community partners in community-campus partnerships: A research report*, Community First: Impacts of Community Engagement, Ottawa ON, Canada.
26. Lantz, P, Viruell-Fuentes, E, Israel, B, Softley, D & Guzman, R 2001, 'Can communities and academia work together on public health research? Evaluation results from a community-based participatory research partnership in Detroit', *Journal of Urban Health: Bulletin of the New York Academy of Medicine*, vol. 78, no. 3: p. 495–507. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jurban/78.3.495>